CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE MELROSE PHASE 2 TRACT, CHARLESTON COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 429

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive cultural resources survey of an approximately 3 acre tract located in Charleston County, South Carolina, just west of the city of Charleston. The work was conducted to assist Andrew Smith and Centex Homes comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The Melrose Phase 2 property, which borders Long Branch Creek to the north and the Melrose Subdivision to the south, will be developed for single family occupancy. To the north and northwest past the wetland, the Bradham, Bolton, and Essex Farms Tracts, part of the same complex of properties, have recently been surveyed by Chicora Foundation. The surrounding area is being quickly developed with neighborhoods and commercial structures.

The proposed undertaking will require the clearing of the tract, followed by construction of various infrastructure elements, such as roads, stormwater drainage, and utilities. Individual lot construction will involve grading, additional utility construction, and subsequent building of structures. These activities have the potential to affect archaeological and historical sites and this survey was conducted to identify and assess archaeological and historical sites that may be in the project tract. For this study an area of potential effect (APE) 0.5 mile from the proposed tract was assumed.

An investigation of the archaeological site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology identified four previously recorded sites (38CH1177, 38CH1272, 38CH1678, and 38CH2023) in the APE. Site 38CH1177 is an eighteenth to nineteenth century and Woodland pottery scatter. Due to possible intact features, the site was recommended potentially eligible for the National Register. Sites 38CH1272 and 38CH1678 are Civil War Fortifications (Long Branch Creek Overflow Battery and Battery Magwood, respectively). Both sites are on the National Register of Historic Places. The final site, 38CH2023, is a subsurface scatter of late nineteenth to early twentieth century artifacts that were recorded on the Essex Farms Tract. This site was determined not eligible for the National Register.

The maps at the S.C. Department of Archives and History were also consulted to see if any National Register of Historic Places sites were in the vicinity of the project area. Sites 38CH1272 and 38CH1678, the Civil War Batteries, were identified, but no other sites or structures were found. Site 38CH1272 is located on the western portion of the survey area. A countywide architectural survey was performed in 1992, so these records are thought to be complete (Fick 1992).

The archaeological survey of the tract incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals on transects which were placed at 100-foot intervals. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study. A total of 52 shovel tests were excavated along 10 transect lines.

As a result of these investigations sites 38CH2073 and 38CH2074 were identified. Site 38CH2073 is a sparse Middle Woodland scatter that is recommended not eligible for the National Register because of its inability to address significant research questions and lack of site integrity. One piece of green edge pearlware was also located within the site. Site 38CH2074 is a sparse prehistoric site that is also recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

Finally, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Andrew Smith of Centex Homes in North Charleston, South Carolina. The work was conducted to assist Centex Homes with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project site consists of an approximately 3 acre tract proposed to be used for residential development west of the city of Charleston, South Carolina (Figure 1). The tract is bordered by Long Branch Creek to the north and the Melrose Subdivision to the south. The previously surveyed Bradham, Bolton, and Essex Farms tracts are to the north and northwest of the current survey area (Figure 2).

The tract consists of somewhat level topography with areas of fresh water wetlands. Also found in the area are forests of mixed pines and hardwoods. The surrounding area is being quickly developed.

The tract is intended for a residential development. This work will require the construction of utilities such as electrical, sewer, and water lines as well as an expanded road system when development begins. There will likely be increased short-term noise, traffic, and dust levels associated with the project. These activities have the potential to damage or otherwise affect any cultural resources that may be present on the tract.

This study, however, does not consider any future secondary impact of the project, including increased or expanded development of this portion of Charleston County. There was a small portion of the area that was not surveyed along Long Branch Creek. While this area does contain the earthwork (38CH1272), the land is not suitable for development. Chicora Foundation has recommended either an easement be placed, protecting the property or that the land be donated to a land trust, however no preservation plan has been included in this report.

We provided a proposal for the survey of the property on August 16, 2005. The proposal was accepted and fieldwork started shortly thereafter.

Initial background investigations incorporated a review of the site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. As a result of that work four previously recorded sites (38CH1177, 38CH1272, 38CH1678, and 38CH2023) were identified in the 0.5 mile APE. Site 38CH1177 is an eighteenth to nineteenth century and Woodland pottery scatter. Due to possible intact features, the site was recommended potentially eligible for the National Register. Sites 38CH1272 and 38CH1678 are Civil War Fortifications (Long Branch Creek Overflow Battery and Battery Magwood, respectively). Both sites are on the National Register of Historic Places. The final site, 38CH2023, is a subsurface scatter of late nineteenth to early twentieth century artifacts that were recorded on the Essex Farms Tract. This site was determined not eligible for the National Register.

Examination of architectural sites at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History identified the two Battery sites (38CH1272 and 38CH1678), but no other sites were recorded. No sites were found in the 1992 countywide architectural survey (Fick 1992).

Additional information was compiled concerning the history of the various tracts making up the study parcels.

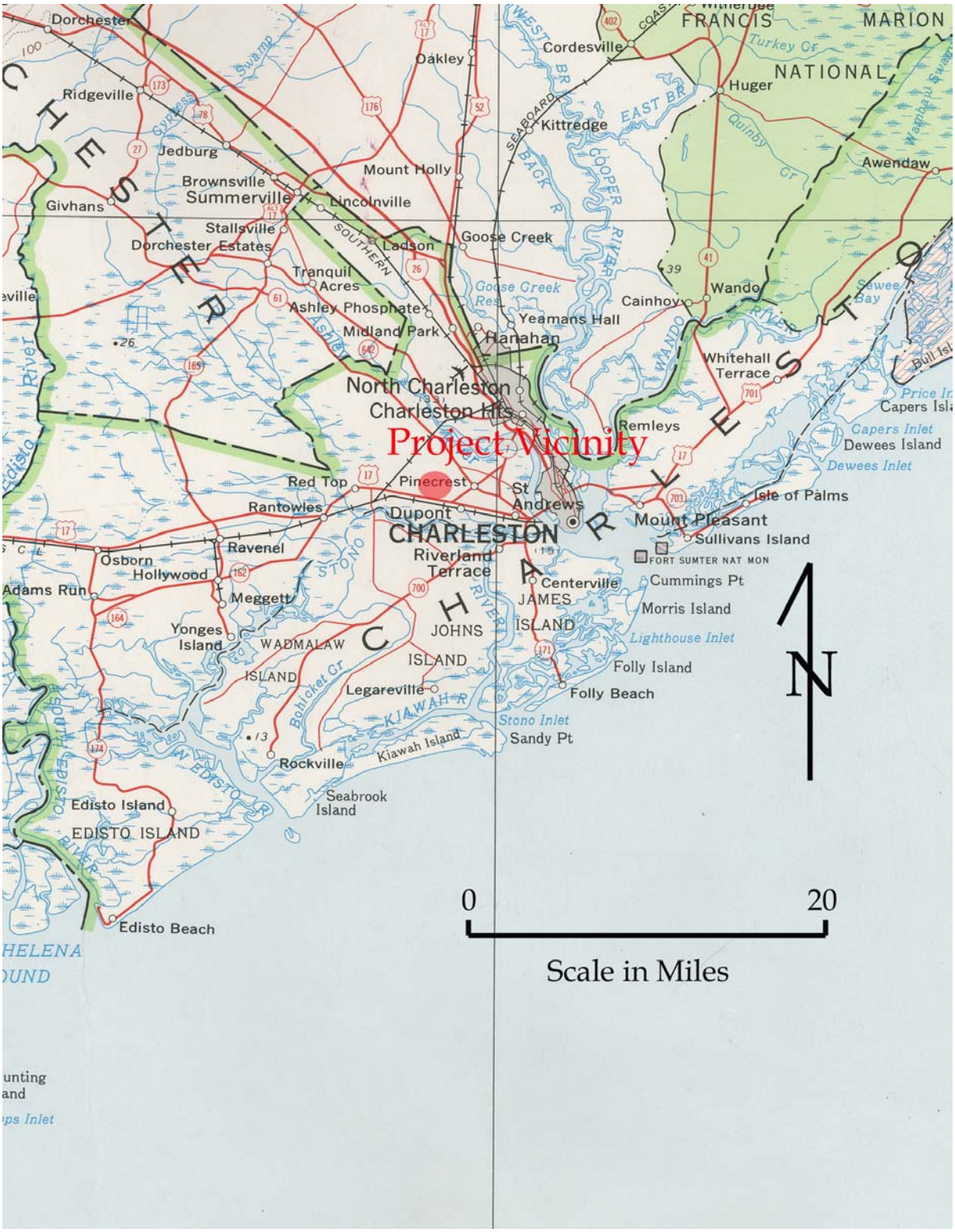

Figure 1. Project vicinity in Charleston County (basemap is USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

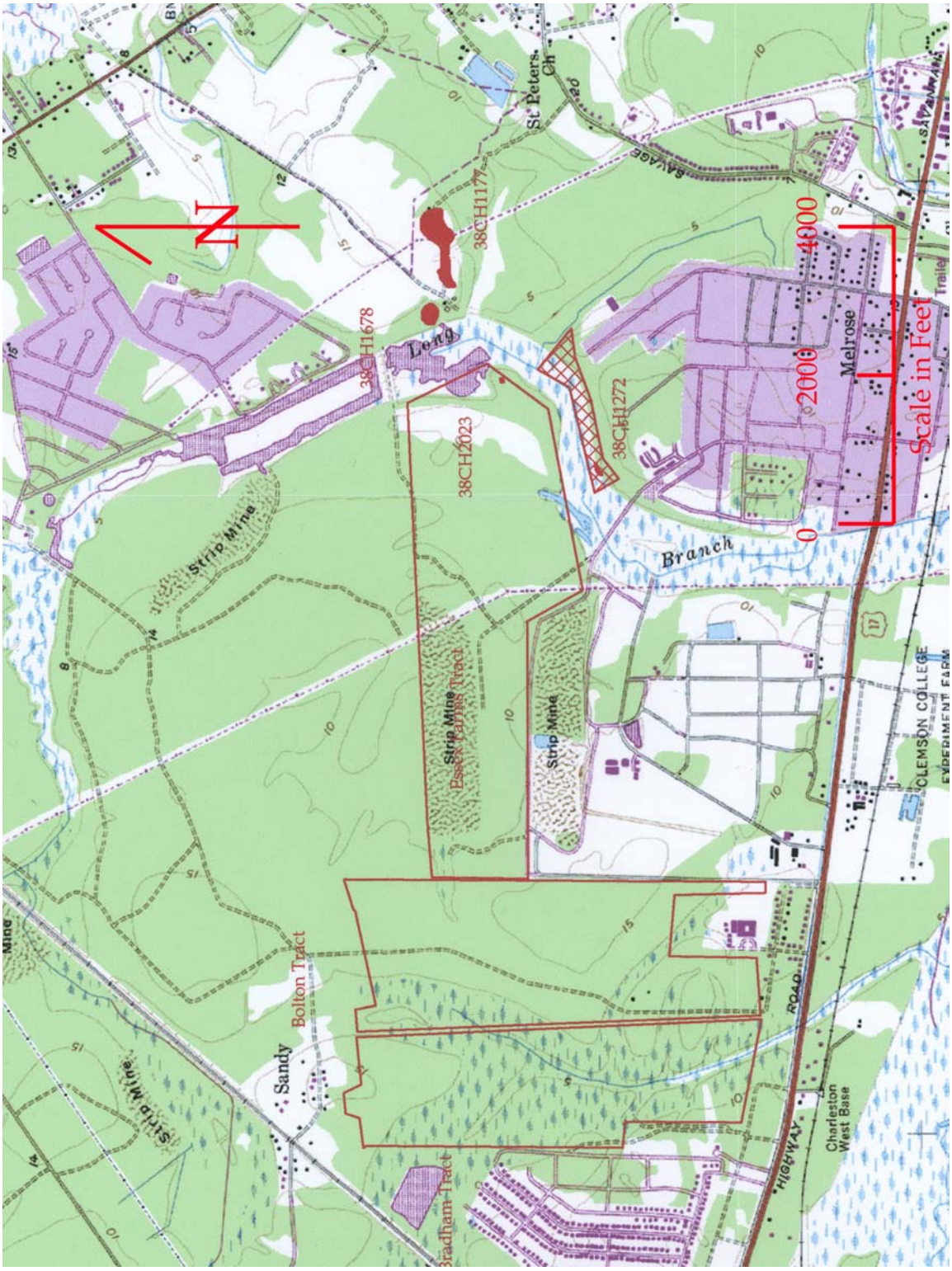

Figure 2. Current project area (shaded in red) with previously identified sites and previously surveyed tracts in the Essex Farms project (basemap is USGS Johns Island 7.5').

The archaeological survey for the Melrose Phase 2 Tract was conducted on September 16, 2005, by Ms. Julie Poppell and Mr. Doug Sane under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley. Historical research was conducted by Ms. Sarah Fick.

This report details the investigation of the project area undertaken by Chicora Foundation and the results of that investigation.

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiography

Charleston County is located in the lower Atlantic Coastal Plain of South Carolina and is bounded to the east by the Atlantic Ocean and a series of marsh, barrier, and sea islands (Mathews et al. 1980:133). Elevations in the County range from sea level to about 70 feet above mean sea level (AMSL).

Seven major drainages are found in Charleston County. Four of these, the Wando, Ashley, Stono, and North Edisto, are dominated by tidal flows and are saline. The Wando forms a portion of the County's interior boundary northeast of Charleston, while the Ashley flows west of the peninsular city of Charleston. The three with significant freshwater flow are the Santee, which forms the northern boundary of the County; the South Edisto, which forms the southern boundary; and the Cooper, which bisects the County.

Because of the low topography, many broad, low gradient interior drains are present as either extensions of the tidal rivers or as flooded bays and swales. Extensions included Hobcaw, Rathall, Foster, Horlbeck, Boone Hall, Wagner, Toomer, and Allston creeks that flow west, north, or northeast into the Wando.

Elevations in the project area range from about 5 to 10 feet AMSL. In general, the topography slopes slightly toward the wetlands and Long Branch Creek to the north.

Geology and Soils

Coastal Plain geological formations are unconsolidated sedimentary deposits of very recent age (Pleistocene and Holocene) lying unconformably on ancient crystalline rocks (Cooke 1936; Miller 1971:74). The Pleistocene sediments are organized into topographically distinct, but lithologically similar, geomorphic units, or terraces, parallel to the coast. The sites are located in an area identified by Cooke (1936) as part of the Pamlico terrace, which includes the land between the recent shore and an abandoned shore line about 25 feet AMSL. Cooke (1936:7) notes that evidence of ancient beaches and swales can still be seen in the Pamlico formation and this likely contributed to the ridge and trough topography present in some areas.

Figure 3. View of drainage ditch in the tract.

Within the coastal zone the soils are Holocene and Pleistocene in age and were formed from materials that were deposited during the various stages of coastal submergence. The formation of soils is affected by this parent material (primarily sands and clays), the temperate climate, the various soil organisms, topography, and time.

The mainland soils are Pleistocene in age and tend to have more distinct horizon development and diversity than the younger soils of the sea and barrier islands. Sandy to loamy soils predominate in the level to gently sloping mainland areas. The island soils are less diverse and less well developed, frequently lacking a well-defined B horizon. Organic matter is low and the soils tend to be acidic. The Holocene deposits typical of barrier islands and found as a fringe on some sea islands, consist almost entirely of quartz sand, which exhibits little organic matter. Tidal marsh soils are Holocene in age and consist of fine sands, clay, and organic matter deposited over older Pleistocene sands. The soils are frequently covered by up to 2 feet of saltwater during high tides. Historically, marsh soils have been used as compost or fertilizer for a variety of crops, including cotton (Hammond 1884:510) and Allston mentions that the sandy soil of the coastal region "bears well the admixture of salt and marsh mud with the compost" (Allston 1854:13).

As the colony was being settled and promoted, the soils were described simply. John Norris told his readers in 1712:

> the Soil is generally Sandy, but of differing Colours, under which, Two or Three Foot Deep, is Clay of which good Bricks are made (Greene 1989:89).

In the last quarter of the eighteenth century, William DeBrahm's *Report* provides little more information, stating only that, "the Land near the Sea Coast is in general of a very sandy Soil" and noting that this soil "along the Coast has as yet not been able to invite the industrious to reap Benefit of its Capacity" (DeVorsey 1971:72).

By the nineteenth century, Robert Mills in his *Statistics of South Carolina* provides slightly more information concerning the current understanding of the soils:

> Lands here [in Charleston District] may be viewed under six divisions in respect to quality; 1st, Tide swamp, 2d, Inland swamp; 3d, High river swamp (or low ground commonly called second low grounds); 4th, Salt Marsh; 5th, Oak and hickory high lands; and 6th, Pine barren. The tide and inland swamps are peculiarly adapted to the culture of rice and hemp; they are very valuable, and will frequently sell for $100 an acre; in some instances for more. The high river swamps are well calculated for raising hemp, indigo, corn, and cotton; and where secured from freshets, are equally valuable with the tide lands. The oak and hickory highlands are well suited for corn and provisions, also for indigo and cotton. The value of these may be stated at from ten to twenty dollars per acre. The pine barrens are not worth more than one dollar an acre (Mills 1972:442-443[1826]).

Even the detail of this account, however, fails to provide a very clear picture of the soils in Christ Church where the sands were low and commonly interspersed with galls or small inland swamps. Here the property, even the supposedly good hickory and oak lands, was poorly drained.

A number of period accounts discuss the importance of soil drainage. Seabrook, for example, explained in 1848:

> Subsoil so close as to be impervious to water; so that the excess of the rains of winter cannot sink. Nor can it flow off, because of the level surface . . . . The land thereby is kept thoroughly water-soaked until late in the spring. The long continued wetness is favorable only to growth of coarse and sour grasses and broom sedge . . . acid and antiseptic qualities of the soil . . . sponge-like power to absorb and retain water . . . is barren, (for useful crops) from two causes – excessive wetness and great acidity. The remedies required are also two; and neither alone will be of the least useful effect, with the other also. Draining must remove the wetness – calcareous manures the acidity (Seabrook 1848:37).

A somewhat similar account would still be provided by Hammond in the postbellum:

> Drainage . . . has of necessity always been practiced to some extent. The remarkably high beds on which cotton is planted here, being from 18 inches to 2 feet high, subserve this purpose. The best planters have long had open drains through their fields. These were generally made by running two furrows with a plow and afterward hauling out the loose dirt with a hoe, thus leaving an open ditch, if it be so termed, a foot or more in depth (Hammond 1884:509).

The number of drainages still found offers mute testimony to the problems planters encountered on these soils and their efforts to make the land productive. These problems have also been briefly mentioned by Hilliard, who comments that soils in the region were, "seldom well enough drained for most crops" (Hilliard 1984:11).

Four soil types are found in the survey area including one well-drained soil, Wagram loamy fine sand, two poorly drained soils, Wadmalaw fine sandy loam and Yonges loamy fine sand, and one very poorly drained soils, Capers silty clay loam.

The one well drained soil, Wagram loamy fine sands, occurs most often and has an A horizon of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) loamy fine sand to a depth of 0.7 foot over a dark brown (10YR4/3) loamy fine sand to a depth of 1.3 feet. A pale yellow (2.5Y7/4) loamy fine sand is found in the subsurface.

Yonges and Wadmalaw soils are also found within the tract. Yonges soils have an Ap horizon of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) loamy fine sand to a depth of 0.9 foot over a light brownish gray (10YR6/2) loamy fine sand. These soils have seasonal high water tables within 1-2 feet of the surface. Wadmalaw soils have an A horizon of black (10YR2/1) fine sandy loam to a depth of 0.4 foot over a very dark gray (10YR3/1) fine sandy loam to a depth of 0.8 foot. The seasonal high water table for these soils is 0-1 foot below the surface.

Also found within the tract are Capers soils. These soils are generally found in the creek bed and have an A horizon of dark gray (5Y4/1) silty clay loam to a depth of 0.4 feet over a dark grayish brown (2.5Y4/2) silty clay to sitly clay loam to a depth of 1.3 feet.

Climate

The weather was all important in Colonial society, affecting the crops that in turn affected trade and wealth. Just as importantly, the Carolina climate affected, usually for the worse, the planter's health. Greene notes that:

Figure 4. View of mixed pines and hardwoods typical of the tract.

> the prospects of obtaining wealth with ease . . . meant little in a menacing environment, and both Nairne and Norris took pains to minimize the unpleasant and dangerous features that already had combined to give South Carolina an ambiguous reputation. They had to admit that throughout the summer temperatures were "indeed troublesome to Strangers." But they contended that settlers had quickly found satisfactory remedies in the form of "open airy Rooms, Arbours and Summer-houses" constructed in shady groves and frequent cool baths and insisted the discomfitures of the summers were more than offset by the agreeableness of the rest of the seasons. [They also suggested] that ill-health was largely limited to newcomers before they were seasoned to the climate, to people who insisted in living in low marshy ground, and to those who were excessive and careless in their eating, drinking, and personal habits. "If temperate," they asserted, those who lived on "dry healthy Land," were "generally very healthful" (Greene 1989:16).

While making for good public relations, the reality was far different. Roy Merrens and George Terry (1989) found that in Christ Church Parish, 86% of all those whose births and deaths are recorded in the parish register, died before the age of twenty. Equally frightening statistics have been compiled by John Duffy (1952), who found that the average European could expect to live to the age of about 30 in South Carolina during the first quarter of the eighteenth century. Yellow fever, smallpox, diphtheria, scarlet fever, malaria, dysentery all were at home in Carolina. Using the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel (SPG) records, Duffy found that from 1700 to 1750, 38% of the missionaries either died or were compelled to resign because of serious illness within the first five years of their arrival. Within 10 years of their arrival, 52% had died or resigned because of their health. After 15 years in the colony, the combined death toll and resignations from sickness reached 68% -- two out of every three missionaries.

African Americans fared no better. Frank Klingberg (1941:154), using SPG records found that in a single four month period over 400 slaves died of "distemper." William Dusinberre, exploring rice plantations along the Carolina coast, entitled one of his chapters "The Charnel House" – a reference to the extraordinary morbidity of African Americans on rice plantations. He reports that on some plantations the child mortality rate (to age sixteen) was a horrific 90% (Dusinberre 1996:51), while the

probable average for rice plantations was around 60% (Dusinberre 1996:239). Cotton plantations – that were probably most numerous in Christ Church – were healthier, but even there fully a third of all slave children did not live to see their sixteenth birthday.

Beginning in the last third of the eighteenth century the life expectancy began to increase. Merrens and Terry suggest that this was the result of the occupants beginning to understand the cause of malaria:

> During the middle of the eighteenth century South Carolinian's perception of the wholesome environment of the lowcountry swamps began to change. People no longer preferred these areas on the score of health as a place of summer residence. Instead, residents began to view the lowcountry as fostering both mosquitoes and death (Merrens and Terry 1989:547).

Perhaps most importantly it is about this time when we also see the planter move his residence from the swamp edge (where he could easily oversee both slaves and crops) to higher, sandier locations. Slave settlements, too, appear to move to somewhat drier and healthier environs.

The Charleston climate, with its moderate winters and long, hot summers, affected not only the health of the populations and the crops grown, it also influenced the politics of Carolina. The summer climate of Carolina, while causing the Barbadian immigrants to feel that they had resettled in the tropics, also convinced most that slavery was inevitable. Not only was slavery the accepted order to the planters from Barbados, Jamaica, Antique, and St. Kitts, it seemed impossible for white Englishmen to work in the torrid heat – making African American slaves that much more essential (Donnan 1928). Even in the Christ Church parish, which in 1720 had a very low settlement compared to other parishes, slaves, comprised 85.6% of the populations.

Floristics

The survey area exhibits three major ecosystems: the maritime forest ecosystem, which consists of the upland forest areas, the palustrine ecosystem, which consists of essentially fresh water, non-tidal wetlands, and the riverine ecosystem, which is derived from salt water and is characterized by a tidal influence (Sandifer et al. 1980:7-9).

The maritime forest ecosystem has been found to consist of five principal forest types, including the Oak-Pine forests, the Mixed Oak Hardwood forests, the Palmetto forests, the Oak thickets, and other miscellaneous wooded areas (such as salt marsh thickets and wax myrtle thickets).

Of these, the Oak-Pine forests are most common, constituting large areas of Charleston's original forest community. In some areas palmetto becomes an important sub-dominant. Typically these forests are dominated by the laurel oak with pine (primarily loblolly with minor amounts of longleaf pine) as the major canopy co-dominant. Hickory is present, although uncommon. Other trees found are the sweet gum and magnolia, with sassafras, red bay, American holly, and wax myrtle and palmetto found in the understory.

Mills, in the early nineteenth century, remarked that:

> South Carolina is rich in native and exotic productions; the varieties of its soil, climate, and geological positions, afford plants of rare, valuable, and medicinal qualities; fruits of a luscious, refreshing, and nourishing nature; vines and shrubs of exquisite beauty, fragrance, and luxuriance, and forest trees of noble growth, in great variety

(Mills 1972:66).

The loblolly pine was called the "pitch or Frankincense Pine" and was used to produce tar and turpentine; the longleaf pine was "much used in building and for all other domestic purposes;" trees such as the red bay and red cedar were often used in furniture making and cedar was a favorite for posts; and live oaks were recognized as yielding "the best of timber for ship building;" (Mills 1972:66-85). Mills also observed that:

> in former years cypress was much used in building, but the difficulty of obtaining it now, compared with the pine, occasions little of it to be cut for sale, except in the shape of shingles; the cypress is a most valuable wood for durability and lightness. Besides the two names we have cedar, poplar, beech, oak, and locust, which are or may be also used in building (Mills 1972:460).

The "Oak and hickory high lands" according to Mills were, "well suited for corn and provisions, also for indigo and cotton" (Mills 1972:443). The value of these lands in the mid-1820s was from $10 to $20 per acre, less expensive than the tidal swamp or inland swamp lands (where rice and, with drainage, cotton could be grown).

Today, virtually all of the site area is covered in a mixed pine and hardwood forest. However, the surrounding area has either already been developed or has been sold for development.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC BACKGROUND

Previous Research

Numerous projects have taken place in vicinity to the current survey area. Most of the surveys are the result of compliance projects for roads (Bailey and Hendrix 2002) and neighborhoods (Burns and Hendrix 2000; Burns and Hendrix 2001).

Other projects include a survey of Civil War fortifications (Trinkley and Fick 2000), which identified several batteries in vicinity of the survey area.

Two tracts, Bradham and Bolton, have also been surveyed to the west of the current tract (Southerland et al. 2004a) and one tract, Essex Farms, was surveyed to the north (Southerland et al. 2004b). Only two sites were found in the 778 acres of these three tracts.

Prehistoric Synopsis

Several previously published archaeological studies are available for the Charleston area that provide additional background, including those previously mentioned. A considerable amount of archaeology has been conducted in the Charleston area and these works should be consulted for broad overviews.

The Paleoindian period, lasting from 12,000 to perhaps 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1968). The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124).

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to about 1000 B.C., does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. The chronology established by Coe (1964) for the North Carolina Piedmont may be applied with relatively little modification to the South Carolina coast. Archaic period assemblages, characterized by corner-notched and broad stemmed projectile points, are rare in the Sea Island region, although the sea level is anticipated to have been within 13 feet of its present stand by the beginning of the succeeding Woodland period (Lepionka et al. 1983:10).

To some the Woodland period begins, by definition, with the introduction of fired clay pottery about 2000 B.C. along the South Carolina coast. To others, the period from about 2500 to 1000 B.C. falls into the Late Archaic because of a perceived continuation of the Archaic lifestyle in spite of the manufacture of pottery. Regardless of the terminology, the period from 2500 to 1000 B.C. is well documented on the South Carolina coast and is characterized by Stallings (fiber-tempered) and Thom's Creek (sand or non-tempered) series pottery.

The subsistence economy during this early period on the coast of South Carolina was based primarily on deer hunting, fishing, and shellfish collection, with supplemental inclusions of small mammals, birds, and reptiles. Various calculations of the probable yield of deer, fish, and other food sources identified from shell ring sites such as Lighthouse Point on James Island to the west, also in Charleston County on James Island, indicate that sedentary life was not only possible, but

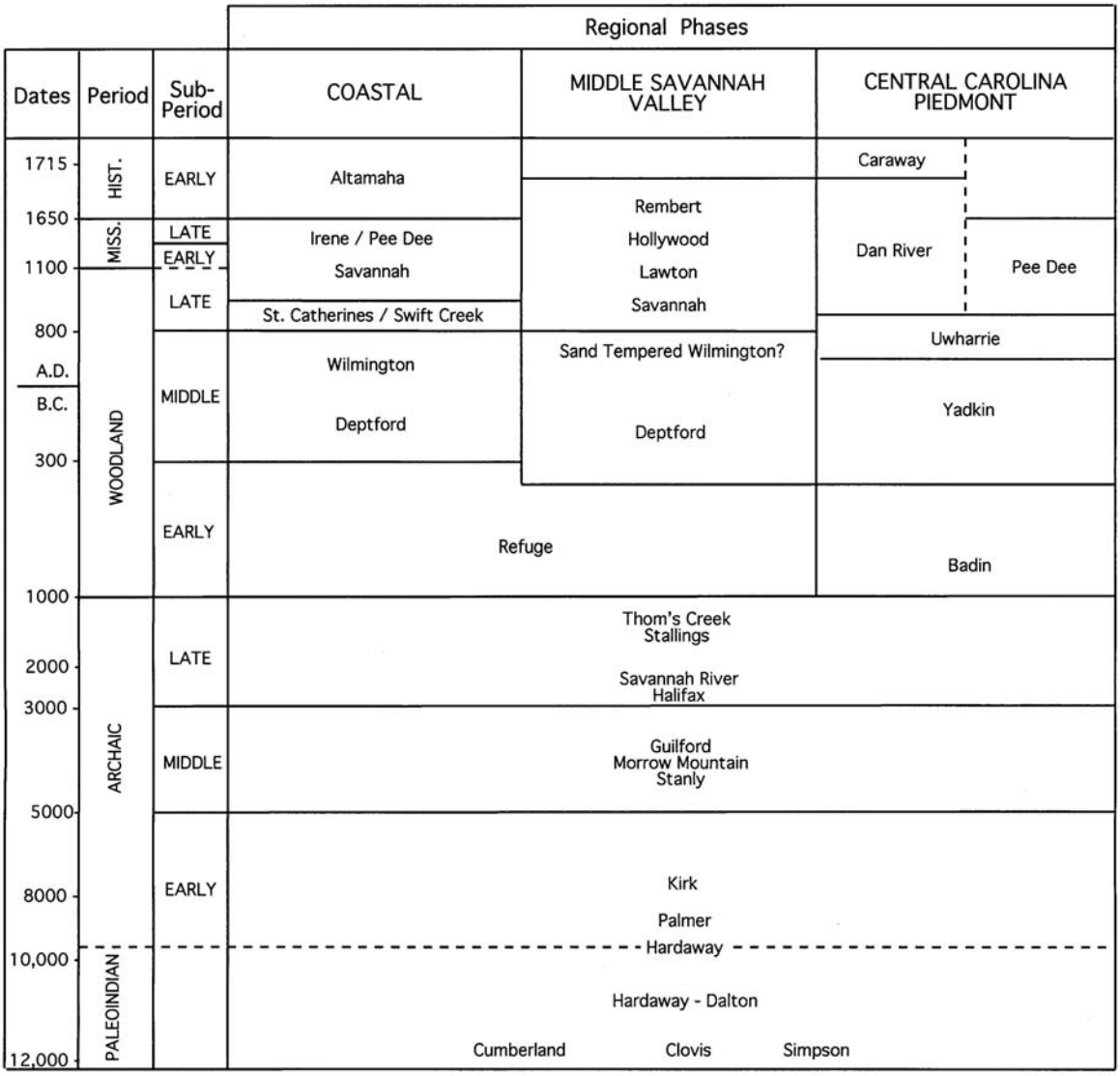

Figure 5. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina.

probable.

Toward the end of the Thom's Creek phase there is evidence of sea level change, and a number of small, non-shell midden sites are found along the coast. Apparently the rising sea level inundated the tide marshes on which the Thom's Creek people relied.

The succeeding Refuge phase, which dates from about 1100 to 500 B.C., suggests fragmentation caused by the environmental changes (Lepionka et al. 1983; Williams 1968). Sites are generally small and some coastal sites evidence no shellfish collection at all (Trinkley 1982). Peterson (1971:153) characterizes Refuge as a degeneration of the preceding Thom's Creek series and a bridge to the succeeding Deptford culture.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 1100 B.C. to A.D. 600, is best characterized by fine

to coarse sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. Also present are quantities of cord marked, simple stamped, and occasional fabric impressed pottery. During this period there is a blending of the Deptford ceramic tradition of the lower Savannah with the Deep Creek tradition found further north along the South Carolina coast and extending into North Carolina (Trinkley 1983).

The Middle Woodland period (ca. 300 B.C. to A.D. 1000) is characterized by the use of sand burial mounds and ossuaries along the Georgia, South Carolina, and North Carolina coasts (Brooks et al. 1982; Thomas and Larsen 1979; Wilson 1982). Middle Woodland coastal plain sites continue the Early Woodland Deptford pattern of mobility. While sites are found all along the coast and inland to the fall line, sites are characterized by sparse shell and few artifacts. Gone are the abundant shell tools, worked bone items, and clay balls. In many respects the South Carolina Late Woodland period (ca. A.D. 1000 to 1650 in some areas of the coast) may be characterized as a continuum of the previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblage.

The Middle and Late Woodland occupations in South Carolina are characterized by a pattern of settlement mobility and short-term occupations. On the southern coast they are associated with the Wilmington and St. Catherines phases, which date from about A.D. 500 to at least A.D. 1150, although there is evidence that the St. Catherines pottery continued to be produced much later in time (Trinkley 1981). On the northern coast there are very similar ceramics called Hanover and Santee.

The South Appalachian Mississippian period (ca. A.D. 1100 to 1640) is the most elaborate level of culture attained by the native inhabitants and is followed by cultural disintegration brought about largely by European disease. The period is characterized by complicated stamped pottery, complex social organization, agriculture, and the construction of temple mounds and ceremonial centers. The earliest coastal phases are named Savannah and Irene (A.D. 1200 to 1550). Sometime after the arrival of Europeans on the Georgia coast in A.D. 1519, the Irene phase is replaced by the Altamaha phase. Altamaha pottery tends to be heavily grit tempered, the complicated stamped motifs tend to be rectilinear and poorly applied, and check stamping occurs as a minority ware. Further north, in the Charleston area, the Pee Dee or Irene ware is replaced by pottery with bolder designs, thought to be representative of the protohistoric and historic periods (South 1971).

Although there has been very little archaeological exploration of historic period Native American groups in the Charleston area, South has compiled a detailed overview of the ethnohistoric sources (South 1972).

Early Settlement and Economic Development

The English established the first permanent settlement in what is today South Carolina in 1670 on the west bank of the Ashley River. Like other European powers, the English were lured to the New World for reasons other than the acquisition of land and promotion of agriculture. The Lord Proprietors, who owned the colony until 1719-1720, intended to discover a staple crop which would provide great wealth through its distribution in the mercantile system.

By 1680 the settlers of Albemarle Point had moved their village across the bay to the tip of the peninsula formed by the Ashley and Cooper rivers. This new settlement at Oyster Point would become modern-day Charleston. The move provided not only a more healthful climate and an area of better defense, but:

> [t]he cituation of this Town is so convenient for public Commerce that it rather seems to be the design of some skillful Artist than the accidental position of nature (Mathews 1954:153).

Early settlers came from the English West Indies, other mainland colonies, England, and the

European continent. It has been argued that those from the English West Indies were the most critical to the future of the colony, as they brought with them a strong agrarian concept, involving both staple crops and, especially, slave labor (Sirmans 1966).

Early agriculture experiments which involved olives, grapes, silkworms, and oranges were less than successful. Ironically, it was often the climate which precluded successful results. While the Indian trade was profitable to many of the Carolina colonists, it did not provide the proprietors with the wealth they were expecting from the new colony. Ranching offered quick, and relatively easy, cash, but again the proprietors resisted such efforts, realizing that the profits they would reap were far smaller than possible from the mercantile system. Consequently, the cultivation of cotton, rice, tobacco, and flax were stressed as these were staple crops whose marketing the proprietors could easily monopolize.

Although introduced at least by the 1690s, rice did not become a significant staple crop until the early eighteenth century. At that time it not only provided the proprietors with an economic base the mercantile system required, but it was also to form the basis of South Carolina's plantation system (Carpenter 1973). Over production soon followed, with a severe decline in prices during the 1740s. This economic down swing encouraged at least some planters to diversify and indigo was introduced (Huneycutt 1949:33). Indigo complemented rice production since they were grown in mutually exclusive areas. Both, however, were labor intensive and encouraged the large scale introduction of slaves.

Although four counties, Berkeley, Craven, Colleton, and Granville, were created by the Proprietors between 1682 and 1685, the Anglican parishes, established in 1706, became the local unit of political administration.

South Carolina's economic development during the pre-Revolutionary War period involved a complex web of interactions between slaves, planters, and merchants. By 1710 slaves outnumbered free people in South Carolina. According to Fick (1992:14), by the year 1720 the St. Andrews Parish had 210 taxpayers and 2,493 slaves, a ratio of 1:12. By the 1730s slaves were beginning to be concentrated on a few, large slave-holding plantations. At the close of the eighteenth century some South Carolina plantations had a ratio of slaves to whites that was 27:1 (Morgan 1977). While over half of eastern South Carolina's white population held slaves, few held very large numbers. The Charleston area had a slave population greater than 50% of the total population by 1790. This imbalance between the races, particularly on remote plantations, may have led to greater "freedom" and mobility (Friedlander in Wheaton et al. 1983:34). By the antebellum period this trend was less extreme.

The area was the scene of relatively little economic development during the late colonial period. Zierden and Calhoun note that:

> Charleston was the economic, institutional and social center of the surrounding region. The necessity of transacting business in Charleston drew planters eager to transform their crops into cash or goods . . . it [was] virtually imperative for a planter interested in society to reside in Charleston at least occasionally (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:36).

They argue that Charleston provided an opportunity for conspicuous consumption, a mechanism which allowed the display of wealth accumulated from the plantation system (with this mechanism continuing through the antebellum period). Scardaville (in Brockington et al. 1985:45) notes that the plantation system which brought prosperity through the export of staple crops also "made the colony . . . highly vulnerable to outside market and political forces."

The most obvious example of this is the

economic hardship brought on by the American Revolution. Not only was the Charleston area the scene of many military actions, but Charleston itself was occupied by the British for over 22 years between 1780 and 1782. The loss of royal bounties on rice, indigo, and naval stores caused considerable economic chaos with the eventual "restructuring of the state's agricultural and commercial base" (Brockington et al. 1985:34).

Antebellum Charleston, Cotton Production, and the Civil War

One means of "restructuring" was the emergence of cotton as the principal cash crop. Although "upland" cotton was available as early as 1733, its ascendancy was ensured by the industrial revolution, the invention of the cotton gin in 1794, and the availability of slave labor. While "Sea Island" cotton was already being efficiently cleaned, the spread of cotton was primarily in the South Carolina interior. Consequently, Charleston benefitted primarily through its role as a commercial center.

Cotton provided about 20 years of economic success for South Carolina. During this period South Carolina monopolized cotton production with a number of planters growing wealthy (Mason 1976). The price of cotton fell in 1819 and remained low through the 1820s, primarily because of competition from planters in Alabama and Mississippi. Friedlander, in Wheaton et al. (1983:28-29) notes that cotton production in the inland coastal parishes fell by 25% in the years from 1821 to 1839, although national production increased by 123%. Production improved dramatically in the 1840s in spite of depressed prices and in the 1850s the price of cotton rose.

The Charleston area did not participate directly in the agricultural activity of the state. Scardaville (in Brockington et al. 1985:35) notes that "the Charleston area, as a result of a large urban market and a far-reaching trade and commercial network, had carved out its own niche in the state's economic system." Zierden and Calhoun remark that:

> [c]ountry merchants, planters, and strangers "on a visit of pleasure" flocked to Charleston. Planters continued to establish residences in Charleston throughout the antebellum era and "great" planters began to spend increasing amount of time in Charleston (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:44).

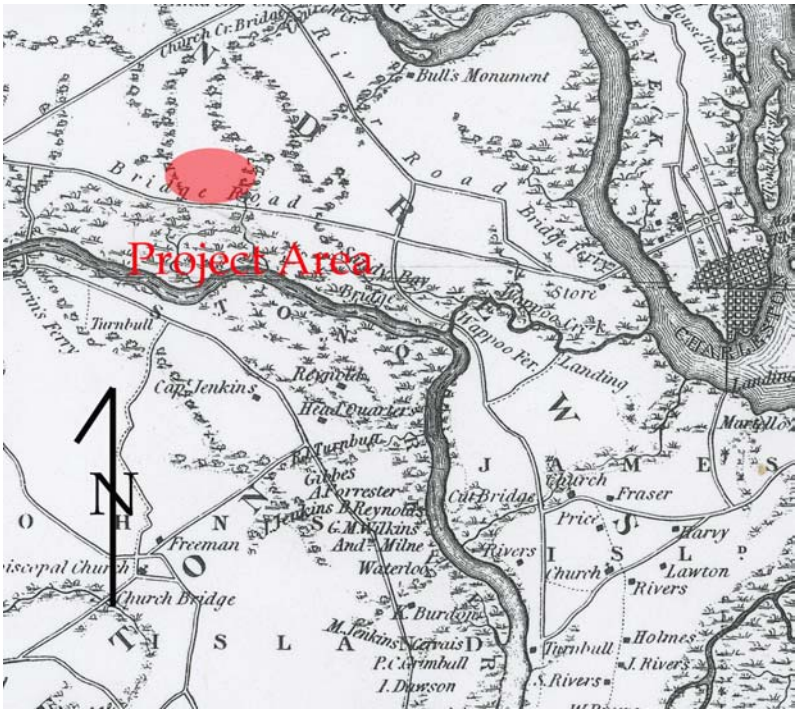

Figure 6. Portion of Mills' *Atlas* showing the project area.

In spite of this appearance of grandeur, Charleston's dependence on cotton and ties to an international market created an economy vulnerable to fluctuation over which the merchants and planters had no control.

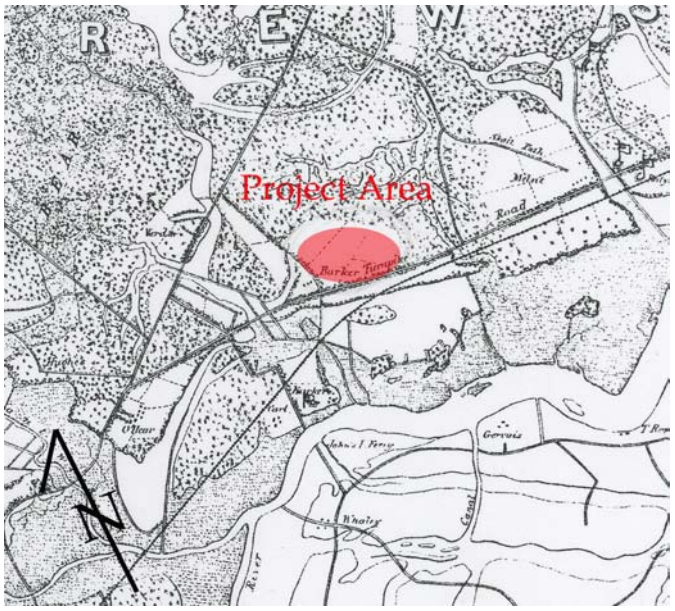

Figure 7. Portion of the 1863 *Map of Charleston and Its Defences* showing the entire Essex Farms project area, including the current project tract.

The development of the railroad, which encouraged trade to the upcountry, brought a revived Charleston economy. By 1857, St. Andrews received a rail line that ran to Savannah, further impacting the commercial economy (see Fick 1992:27).

The 1863 *Map of Charleston and Its Defences* (Figure 7) shows the survey area as cultivated fields.

The increase in commercial activity, however, was short lived. The Civil War not only destroyed the architecture of the city, but it destroyed the economic order that was once so important in Charleston.

An appropriate summary is provided by Zierden and Calhoun:

> [t]he economic decline of Charleston occurred as the city was growing increasingly defensive of its "peculiar institution." The city sullenly withdrew into itself, eschewing the present and glorifying its past. The great fire of 1861 devastated much of downtown Charleston. The War between the States . . . set the seal on a social and economic era (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:54).

Postbellum Period

After the Civil War Charleston and the surrounding countryside lay in waste. Plantation houses were destroyed, the city was in near ruins, the agricultural base of slavery was destroyed, and the economic system was in chaos. Rebuilding after the war involved two primary tasks: forging a new relationship between white land owners and black freedmen, and creating a new economic order through credit merchants. General sources discussing the changes in South Carolina include Williamson (1975), Goldenwieser and Truesdell (1924), and more recently, Zuczek (1996). Scardaville (Brockington et al. 1985:43-48), however, provides information on the changing labor patterns specifically in the study area.

The nearby Christ Church Agricultural Society, organized in 1882. The Society's membership, like that of other organizations of the period, consisted of the remnants of the Southern planting aristocracy. The organizations, founded to encourage and promote the return of the "agrarian south," were concerned with a vast range of issues, including planting practices, the prices offered for various crops, the transportation of crops at reasonable prices on the new railroads, and resolving what were considered constant labor problems, i.e., the control of "Negroes."

For example, as late as 1909 the members of the Christ Church Agricultural Society agreed to a list of labor rules closely resembling antebellum slavery, including:

- no laborer shall be taken who is in debt, without payment of such debt.

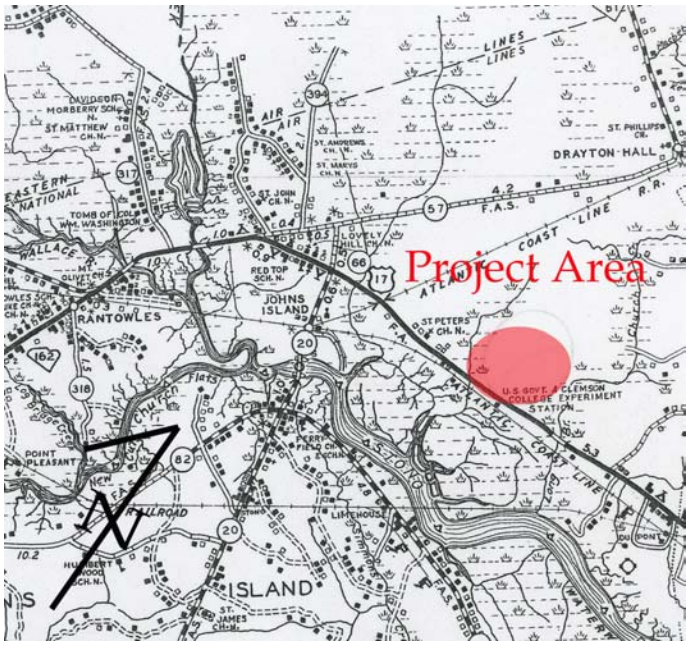

Figure 8. Portion of the 1942 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Charleston County* showing the entire Essex Farms project, including the current survey area.

> ▪ no laborer who has been discharged for insubordination shall be taken during the current year or within six months.
>
> ▪ that all tenants shall agree to give there [sic] spare time to their landlords when called on (South Carolina Historical Society, Christ Church Agricultural Society Minute Book, 34-197).

The society's constant interest in agricultural prices and conditions is shown by a 1902 report:

> unusually fine corn crops planted in the parish, and also find the acreage a large one, which gives promise of a large yield. Peas and potatoes have not been neglected and, on the whole, the crops generally are up to the standard. The committee found the asparagus crops in good condition and some of the crops of young asparagus above the average. No complaints were made of rust . . . . Labor is abundant, but getting more and more inefficient each year . . . . Until we cease employing labor that has been discharged for cause, inefficiency, etc. . . . so long will we make the labor more and more worthless. We pay from 40 to 50 cents per day for our labor and I doubt if, under the best management, we receive 20 to 25 cents value for it . . . . The prices obtained for truck, during the past year have not been remunerative, more stuff being shipped and less money realized; in some instances the falling off amounting to 30 percent (South Carolina Historical Society, Christ Church Agricultural Society Minute Book, 34-197).

As Scardaville notes (Brockington et al. 1985:52), it is very difficult to use the agricultural schedules for economic analyses after 1870. The 1880 schedule seriously under-represents Charleston District, the 1890 schedules were destroyed by fire, all subsequent schedules are provided only on a county level (the individual parish and farm level information being destroyed under authority of Congress), and vital information is missing from the 1900 census. At a county-wide level, however, it is clear that between 1870 and 1910 Charleston's agricultural production gradually increased, the labor system stabilized, and prosperity returned.

In terms of relative importance, cotton and livestock were the two most important agricultural activities in Charleston County, followed by truck farming and grain production. During the late postbellum tenancy increased dramatically throughout South Carolina, except for several coastal areas where Scardaville suggests black farmers were able to purchase small tracts. Where tenancy did exist, it was

largely cash rental, not sharecropping, and Scardaville argues that this formed the vital link allowing black ownership (Scardaville in Brockington et al. 1985:62).

Beginning shortly after the Civil War, truck farming became one of the primary agricultural activities of area farmers. The combination of soil fertility, climate, and proximity gave truck farming an edge in the effort to supply Charleston with produce. As early as 1873 it was noted:

> the cultivation of garden produce for export in the neighborhood of Charleston, was not pursued as an occupation previously to the years 1865 or 1866. [Recently,] there are a large class of farmers & planters in St. Andrew's and Christ Church Parishes . . . who, in connection with a crop of Sea Island cotton, grow vegetables for export (Charleston Chamber of Commerce 1873:32-33).

As a result many blacks were employed as wage laborers. Produce increased from about one-quarter of the county's agricultural production in 1890 to over three-quarters by 1930 (Scardaville in Brockington et al. 1985:74). Much of this prosperity, however, disappeared during the Great Depression, when trucking in Charleston County declined by 75%.

As agriculture production declined during the depression, beef and dairy farming gained ground (Fick 1992:51). In St. Andrews Parish, Coburg Dairy was founded in 1920 and by 1969 Coburg was the "largest independent dairy in the state" (Fick 1992:51).

The 1942 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Charleston County* shows the survey area as being wet and no structures located on the property.

METHODS

Archaeological Field Methods

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along transects placed at 100-foot intervals.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially by transect. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1.0 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology revisit site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators.

For the tract, a total of 10 transects were set up at 100-foot intervals along the southern edge of the parcel, which ran approximately east-west. Shovel tests worked north off the transect line at 100 foot intervals. A total of 52 shovel tests were performed in the survey area. No shovel testing was performed in the western portion of the project area due to the land being unsuitable for development (Figure 10).

The GPS positions were taken with a Garmin GPS 76 rover that tracks up to twelve satellites, each with a separate channel that is continuously being read. The benefit of parallel channel receivers is their improved sensitivity and ability to obtain and hold a satellite lock in difficult situations, such as in forests or urban environments where signal obstruction is a frequent problem. This was a vital concern for the study area.

GPS accuracy is generally affected by a number of sources of potential error, including errors with satellite clocks, multipathing, and selective availablity. Satellite clock errors can occur when the satellites' clock is off by as little as a millisecond, or when a slightly-askew orbit results in a distance error. Multipathing occurs when the signal bounces off trees, chain-link fences, or bodies of water. Multipathing was probably a significant source of error for this study because of the trees and the wetlands area. The source of most extreme GPS errors is selective availability (SA), the deliberate mistiming of satellite signals by the Department of Defense. This degradation results in horizontal errors of up to 100 m 95% of the time, although the error may be as much as 300 m. Nevertheless, selective availability has been turned off by the DOD. We have previously determined the 3D[1] and DGPS readings with the Garmin 76 were identical. Therefore, we relied on 3D navigation mode, with expected potential horizontal errors of 10 m or less.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 0.5 mile area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects which appeared to have been constructed before 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey recorded only those which have retained "some measure of its historic

[1]A basic requirement for GPS position accuracy is having a lock on at least four satellites, which places the receiver in 3D mode. This is critical B as an example, positions calculated with less than four satellites can have horizontal errors in excess of a mile, or over 1,600 m.

integrity" (Vivian n.d.:5) and which were visible from public roads.

For each identified resource, we would complete a Statewide Survey Site form and at least two representative photographs were taken. Permanent control numbers would be assigned by the Survey Staff and the S.C. Department of Archives and History at the conclusion of the study. The Site Forms for the resources identified during this study would be submitted to the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

Figure 9. View of the shovel testing in the tract.

Site Evaluation

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

> the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and
>
> a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
>
> b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
>
> c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
>
> d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

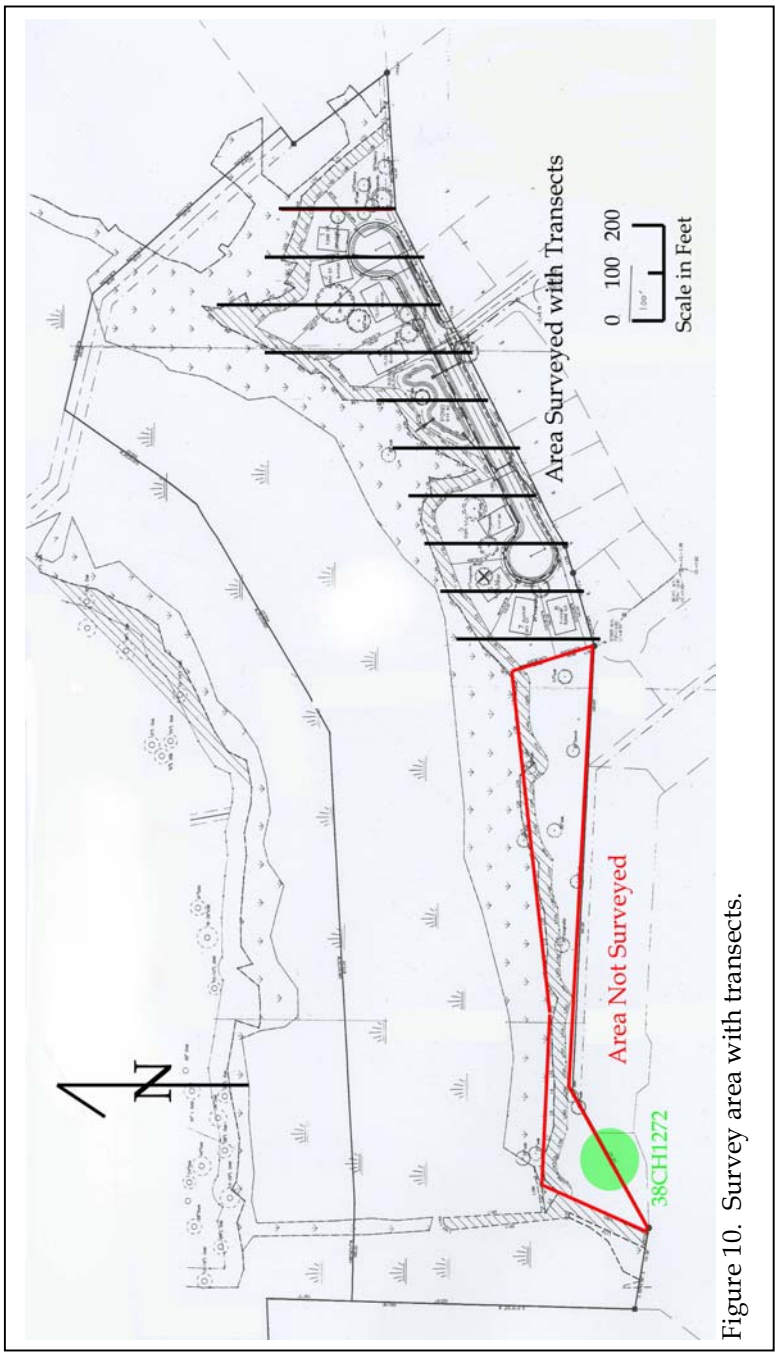

Figure 10. Survey area with transects.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;

- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and

- identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been summarized, but we have tried to focus on an archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

Laboratory Analysis

The cleaning and analysis of artifacts was conducted in Columbia at the Chicora Foundation laboratories. These materials have been

catalogued and accessioned for curation at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, the closest regional repository. A site form for the identified archaeological sites have been filed with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. Field notes have been prepared for curation using archival standards and will be transferred to that agency as soon as the project is complete.

Analysis of the collections followed professionally accepted standard with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains. In general, the temporal, cultural, and typological classifications of historic remains follow such authors as Price (1979) and South (1977). Classification of prehistoric materials were defined by such authors as Yohe (1996), Blanton et al. (1986), and Oliver et al. (1986).

RESULTS OF SURVEY

Introduction

As a result of this cultural resources survey two archaeological sites (38CH2073 and 38CH2074) were recorded (Figure 11). Site 38CH2073 is a sparse Middle Woodland scatter that is recommended not eligible for the National Register for its inability to address significant research questions and lack of integrity. Site 38CH2074 is a prehistoric site that is also recommended not eligible for the National Register for its inability to address significant research questions.

The architectural survey did not identify any structures or other resources beyond those identified by the 1992 survey, none of which were in the project APE (Fick 1992). One earthwork, 38CH1272, however, is located on the western portion of the property. We have recommended that this portion of the property be donated to a land trust or have an easement built around it to protect the space, which is not suitable for development even if there were no earthwork on the property.

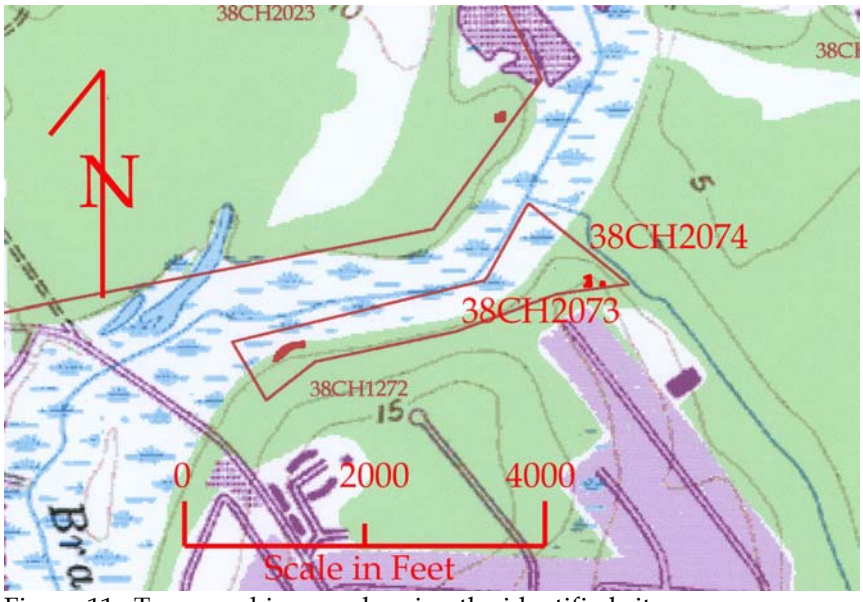

Figure 11. Topographic map showing the identified sites

Archaeological Resource

38CH2073

Site 38CH2073 (Figure 11) consists of a subsurface scatter of Middle Woodland sherds and a single piece of green edged pearlware. It is situated on somewhat level topography next to Long Branch Creek at an elevation of about 10 feet AMSL.

The site is situated in an area of mixed pines and hardwoods.

Shovel tests were performed at the initially proposed 100-foot intervals with Transect 4, Shovel Test 1 (50R300) positive. Additional shovel testing was performed at 25-foot intervals along the cardinal directions until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. A total of 40 shovel tests were excavated with 10 positive (25%).

The site produced the well-drained Wagram soils, however the top very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) soil typical of this soil series was gone, leaving the dark brown (10YR4/3) soil as the A horizon.

As previously mentioned, the site is a late Middle Woodland scatter that also produced a single fragment of pearlware, which dates to the early nineteenth

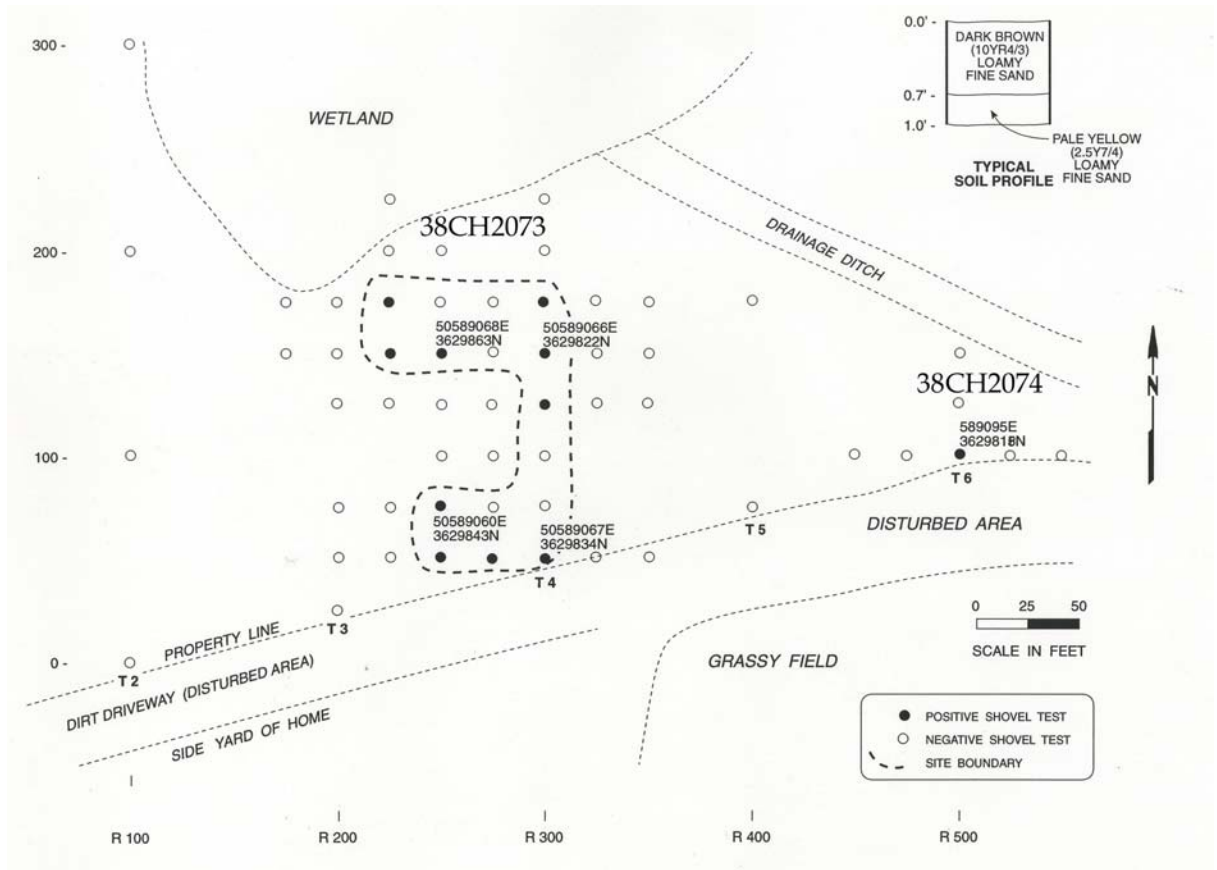

Figure 12. Sketch map and soil profile for 38CH2073 (left) and 38CH2074 (right).

century. A total of 18 artifacts were collected from the 10 shovel tests (Table 1). The highest number of artifacts from one shovel test was from 175R225, which produced five sherds. Test 150R300 produced three sherds. All of the other tests produced only one or two artifacts.

An estimated site dimension is 75 feet east-west by 125 feet north-south. The central UTM coordinate is 589066E 3629822N (NAD27 datum).

The piece of green edged pearlware (found in test 150R225) has a mean date of 1805, however the historic component of the site appears isolated since no additional historic remains were found. Of the prehistoric sherds, only two are diagnostic. These two sherds, both Deptford Cord-marked, came from tests 50R250 and 75R250. Deptford sherds date to the Middle Woodland.

The only data set identified is the pottery. No lithics, floral, or faunal remains were found in any of the shovel tests. No tests were unusually deep (suggestive of features) or produced unique soil profiles. While all of the prehistoric remains were found in the subsoil, they all appear to have been found in the upper portion of the subsoil, close to the edge of the A horizon. Between logging and possible flooding from the nearby wetland, site integrity is questionable.

While there are a number of research questions specific to Middle Woodland remains, ranging from the refinement of Deptford typologies, to the development of settlement models, to the exploration of changing subsistence

Table 1.
Artifacts from Site 38CH2073

	50 R250	50 R275	50 R300	75 R250	125 R300	150 R225	150 R250	150 R300	175 R225	175 R300
Deptford cord-marked	1			1						
Small sherd		2	1		2		1	3	5	1
Green edge pearlware						1				

bases, these data sets are far too sparse to provide the level of information necessary to address these questions.

Consequently, we recommend this site as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places and recommend no additional management activities, pending the review and concurrence of the State Historic Preservation Office.

38CH2074

Site 38CH2074 (see Figure 11) consists of a subsurface scatter of prehistoric sherds. It is situated on somewhat level topography next to Long Branch Creek at an elevation of about 10 feet AMSL.

The site is situated in an area of mixed pines and hardwoods.

Shovel tests were performed at the initially proposed 100-foot intervals with Transect 6, Shovel Test 1 (125R500) positive. Additional shovel testing was performed at 25-foot intervals along the cardinal directions until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered, however only the one shovel test produced artifacts.

According to the Charleston County soil survey (Miller 1971), the site area should produce Wagram soils, which typically have an A horizon of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) loamy fine sand to a depth of 0.7 foot over a dark brown (10YR4/3) loamy fine sand to a depth of 1.3 feet. A pale yellow (2.5Y7/4) loamy fine sand is found in the subsurface. However, the top very dark grayish brown A horizon was missing in the soil profile.

As previously mentioned, only one shovel test produced artifacts. A total of three small prehistoric sherds were found. Since the sherds are under 1-inch in size, no temporal association was assumed and the size of the site is about 25 feet by 25 feet. A central UTM coordinate for the site is 589095E 3629828N (NAD27 datum).

This site lacks the density and quality of remains to be able to address significant research questions. Given the site's proximity to 38CH2073 it is possible that the two are associated. However, the absence of remains between the two loci required the assignment of distinct site numbers.

Consequently, due to the inability to address significant research questions, we recommend this site as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places and recommend no additional management activities, pending the review and concurrence of the State Historic Preservation Office.

Architectural Resources

There are two previously recorded National Register listed Civil War batteries (38CH1272 and 38CH1678) in the 0.5 mile APE. Battery Magwood (38CH1678) cannot be seen from the current survey area and in addition, Battery Magwood has already been heavily impacted by construction of Lowe's and Henry Tecklenburg Drive, which are adjacent to the property. The current undertaking will have no additional affects on this battery.

On the other hand, Long Branch Creek Battery (38CH1272) is located on the current survey parcel. Known on some maps as the

Overflow Battery, the Long Branch Creek Battery was armed in May of 1864 with three siege guns, a 32-pounder, a 24-pounder and a 12-pounder, and two 24-pounder barbette rifles (OR66, p. 466) and was an integral part of the line of defenses of Charleston during the Civil War.

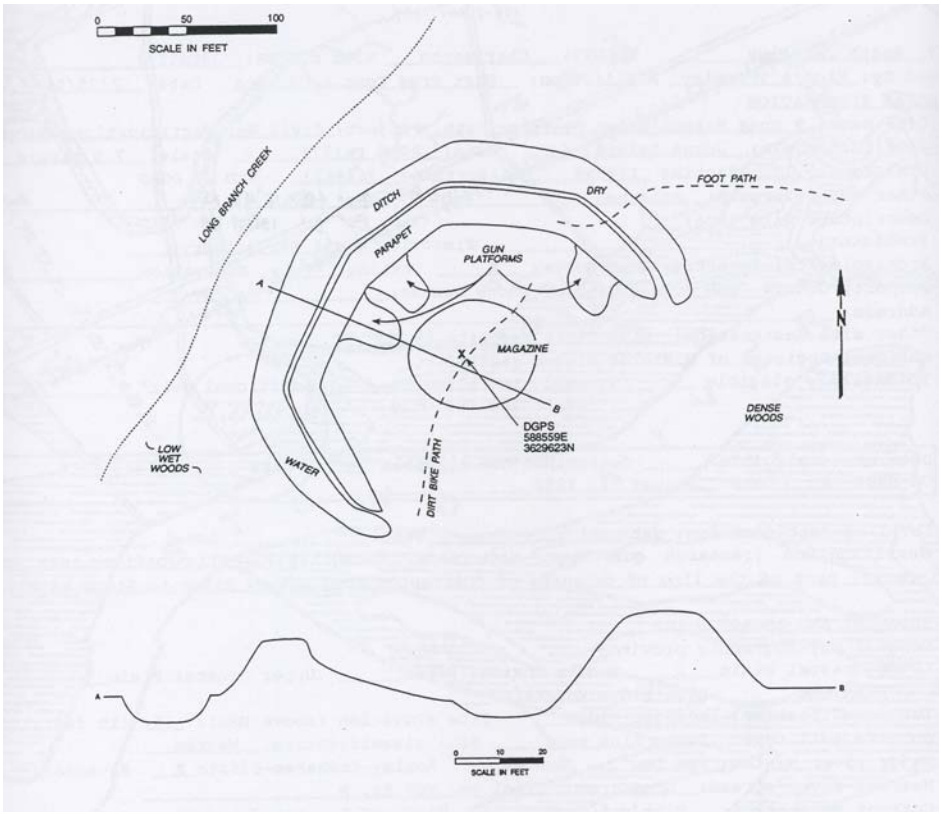

Figure 13. Sketch map of the Long Branch Creek Overflow Battery (38CH1272) (from Sarah Fick, 2000, site form).

The battery is described during the Chicora and Preservation Consultans study in 2000 as having a parapet wall about 8 to 10 feet wide at the top, a magazine about 15 feet high, three gun emplacements, and a ditch about 15 feet below the outer base of the parapet wall (Sarah Fick, 2000, site form).

Four historic maps show this Battery, including the 1863 *Map of Charleston and Its Defences,* the 1864 *Map of the Defenses of Charleston City and Harbor,* the 1890 *Map of the Defenses of Charleston Harbor,* and the 1919 War Department map of Johns Island. During the site visit in 2000, the battery was labeled in "good condition" (Sarah Fick, 2000, site form). There were concerns about future impacts to the site, including unrestricted foot and dirtbike traffic, the site being used as a trash dump, and the impending development. No change was noted during this assessment.

While this battery is located on the property owned by Centex Homes, the area was not surveyed because of the known location of the battery. We have already recommended to the client that the property that contains the battery be either donated to a land trust or be placed in a protected easement. This parcel is not suitable for development due to its size and proximity to the wetland. A preservation plan would be needed, however this report does not include such a plan since the client has yet to decide on their options.

No additional historic properties noted in the 1992 Charleston Survey (Fick 1992) were found in the project APE. A drive of the surrounding roads verified the findings.

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of a tract of approximately 3 acres in Charleston County to be used for a neighborhood of single family homes. This work, conducted for Mr. Andrew Smith of Centex Homes examined archaeological sites and cultural resources found in the proposed project area and is intended to assist Centex Homes in complying with their historic preservation responsibilities.

As a result of this investigation, two archaeological sites, 38CH2073 and 38CH2074, were identified and assessed. Site 38CH2073 is a sparse Middle Woodland and early nineteenth century site while 38CH2074 is a unidentifiable prehistoric site. Both sites are recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places due to lack of integrity and inability to address significant research questions.

A survey of public roads within 0.5 mile confirmed the findings of the 1992 county-wide survey (Fick 1992). No structures were found in the project APE. One National Register Battery, 38CH1272, is located on the current survey property, however the land is unsuitable for development and we have recommended either a protected easement be placed around the battery or the land be donated to a land trust.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered during construction activities. As always, contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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